

**Growth of male and female *Araucaria araucana* trees respond differently to regional mast events, creating sex-specific patterns in their tree-ring chronologies**

Martín A. Hadad<sup>1\*</sup>; Fidel A. Roig<sup>2,3</sup>; Julieta G. Arco Molina<sup>2</sup>; Andrew Hacket-Pain<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratorio de Dendrocronología de Zonas Áridas CIGEOBIO (CONICET-UNSJ), Gabinete de Geología Ambiental (INGEO-UNSJ), San Juan, Argentina.

<sup>2</sup>Laboratorio de Dendrocronología e Historia Ambiental, IANIGLA-CCT CONICET-Universidad Nacional de Cuyo, Mendoza, Argentina.

<sup>3</sup>Hémera Centro de Observación de la Tierra, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Mayor, Huechuraba, Santiago, Chile.

<sup>4</sup>Department of Geography and Planning, School of Environmental Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, L697ZT, UK.

\*e-mail: mhadad@unsj-cuim.edu.ar

**Abstract**

*Araucaria araucana* is a dioecious evergreen conifer endemic to temperate forests of south Argentina and Chile. It is a long-lived species (maximum age >1000 years), and it presents a high potential for tree-ring based climate reconstructions. However, the species' dioecious habit can result in distinct sex-specific growth patterns, which introduce novel challenges in the interpretation of tree-ring chronology variations. We used a network of 10 tree-ring chronologies from northwest Patagonia (Argentina) to analyze sex-specific growth patterns in *A. araucana* and, for the first time, demonstrate that they result from the contrasting responses of ring width index of male ( $RWI_{\text{male}}$ ) and female ( $RWI_{\text{female}}$ ) trees to regional mast events (years with high seed production). During the year of seed maturation and seed dispersal, the growth of females is strongly and significantly reduced, while a growth response of similar magnitude was found in

male trees in the previous year, corresponding to the year of pollination. We interpret these growth responses as representing contrasting allocation shifts between growth and reproduction in males and females. The sex-specific growth responses associated with mast events resulted in a particularly strong and distinct signal in a  $RWI_{\text{male}}-RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology. Male and female tree-ring chronologies share a strong common signal, and respond similarly (but not exactly) to broad-scale climatic conditions in the growing season. Our results indicate that sex-specific tree-ring chronologies can be used to isolate mast events in *A. araucana* chronologies, providing an opportunity to develop unique multi-century reconstructions of large mast events, and improve dendroclimatic calibration for this species.

**Keywords:** carbon allocation; dendroecology; trade-off; dendroclimatology; Patagonia.

## 1. Introduction

*Araucaria araucana* (Molina) K. Koch is a long-lived (maximum age >1000 years) dioecious conifer endemic from temperate forests of south Argentina and Chile (Roig and Villalba, 2008; Aguilera-Betti et al., 2017). Its importance for dendroecological and climatic studies is well documented (Mundo et al., 2012; Muñoz et al., 2014; Hadad et al., 2015, 2020; Hadad and Roig, 2016; Rozas et al., 2019), including for climate variability reconstructions (e.g. Villalba et al., 2012; Morales et al., 2020). Furthermore, large-scale atmospheric phenomenon have been detected in *A. araucana* tree rings, evidenced by the link between its growth responses and the sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies of the Niño 3.4 region in the tropical Pacific Ocean, and with the atmospheric pressure differences between the middle and high latitudes (~40°- 65°S) of the Southern Hemisphere, represented by the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) index

(Mundo et al., 2012; Villalba et al., 2012; Hadad et al., 2015; Hadad and Roig, 2016; Morales et al., 2020). Analysis of stable carbon isotopes of *A. araucana* tree rings has also provided information on the long-term physiological reaction of this endangered species (International Union for Conservation of Nature, <http://www.iucnredlist.org/>) to recent climate changes, as evidenced by the increase in intrinsic water-use efficiency (iWUE) during recent decades (Arco Molina et al., 2019).

Dendroclimatic reconstructions are dependent on a strong and stable relationship between growth and climate (Fritts, 1976). However, the physiological mechanisms linking climate and growth are complex, and include the effects of resource assimilation and allocation, among others, which vary at interannual timescales (Thomas, 2011). This can reflect adaptive responses to stress (Lauder et al., 2019), or result from a potential trade-off or switching of resources in years of high investment in reproduction (Selas et al., 2002; Monks and Kelly, 2006; Hacket-Pain et al., 2018). The effects of dynamic resource allocation is particularly important in masting species, which are characterized by highly variable allocation to reproduction (Kelly, 1994). Years of high investment in reproduction (mast events) represent a major sink of carbon and other resources. For example, Müller-Haubold et al. (2013) showed that in central European beech forests, carbon allocation to reproduction varied between 2-50% of total aboveground Net Primary Production between non-mast and mast events. Negative relationships between growth and reproduction have been reported in many species (Norton and Kelly, 1988; Selas et al., 2002; Hacket-Pain et al., 2018; Lauder et al., 2019), although the nature of this apparent trade-off has been questioned in those cases where carbon resources do not appear to limit tree growth (Mund et al., 2020). Nevertheless, variable allocation of resources to reproduction explains an important

component of year-to-year variability in tree growth (Monks and Kelly, 2006; Müller-Haubold et al., 2013, Hacket-Pain et al., 2018).

*Araucaria araucana* provides a valuable opportunity to improve understanding of the relationship between reproduction and growth by taking advantage of within-species sex-specific allocation to reproduction (Obeso, 2002). Previous studies in other dioecious species (e.g. *Juniperus communis* subsp. *alpina* (Suter) Celak; *Ilex aquifolium* L.) have indicated that investment in reproduction is higher in female trees, leading to a long-term reduction in female growth relative to males (Obeso, 2002; Ortiz et al., 2002). However, the potential effect of reproduction on interannual growth variation remains largely unexplored. *A. araucana* presents a further advantage as its reproductive cycle crosses multiple years, with pollination and seed maturation occurring in different years (Fig. 1). Consequently, we hypothesize that the costs of reproduction for male and female *A. araucana* trees are concentrated within different years. Costs associated with reproduction in females occur mainly in the year of cone maturation ( $t$ ), while the costs for males occur mainly in the year of pollination ( $t-1$ ) (Fig. 1). We further hypothesize that these sex-specific costs of reproduction, coupled with a growth-reproduction trade-off (Rozas et al., 2019) and a highly variable reproductive effort between years (Sanguinetti and Kitzberger, 2008; Sanguinetti, 2014), may explain previously reported differences in growth variability between sexes in *Araucaria araucana* (Hadad and Roig, 2016; Rozas et al., 2019). Further, this work aims at testing the relationship between tree-ring chronologies and sea surface temperature to evaluate the climate sensitivity of male and female tree growth.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Timeline of seed production in *A. araucana*

*A. araucana* is a masting species, and previous studies have indicated that moderate to large cone and seed crops (“mast events”) occur every 2-5 years (Montaldo, 1974; Donoso et al., 2006; Sanguinetti and Kitzberger, 2008). The largest mast events are associated with cone production >2 standard deviations from the long-term mean, and occur synchronously across the restricted geographic distribution of the species (Sanguinetti and Kitzberger, 2008). As the *A. araucana* pollen grain is one of the largest pollen grains (80-100 µm in diameter) among all conifers (Huesser et al., 1988; Owens et al., 1998), synchronization of large-scale flowering may help to alleviate pollen limitation (Pearse et al., 2016).

Preliminary observations of *A. araucana* reproductive biology indicate that the primordia of the pollen cones (male) is already formed during the austral fall, while the archesporium is differentiated in winter months, remaining in this stage until mid-October (Del Fueyo et al., 2008). Towards early summer, the pollen grains are mature, and pollination takes place (Del Fueyo et al., 2008; Donoso et al., 2009). Therefore, the microsporangiate strobili or pollen cones (males) can complete their cycle in almost eight months while the megasporangiate strobili or seed cones (females) take more than a year to complete their maturity (Del Fueyo, pers. com.), with seed fall occurring in late summer or early autumn (February-March) of the following year (Fig. 1).

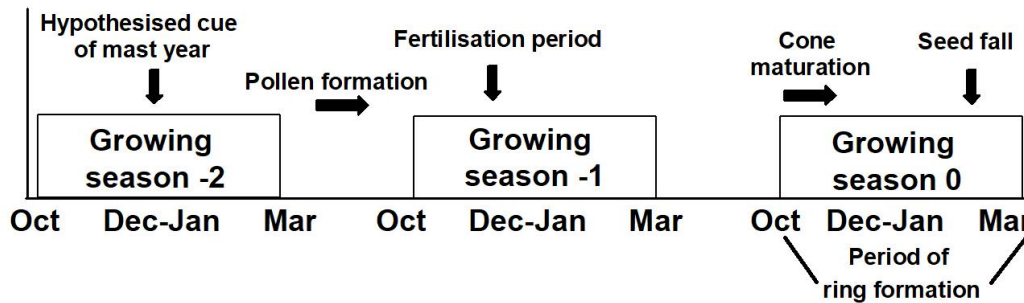


Figure 1: Hypothesised cue of mast years and timeline of *Araucaria araucana* male and female cone maturation.

## 2.2. Study sites

Ten stands of *A. araucana* trees (four xeric and six mesic forests) located in northwestern Patagonia, Argentina, were studied (Fig. 2, Table 1). The region is characterized by a strong precipitation gradient from west to east, with higher annual precipitation at the Andes cordillera and lower towards the steppe. The xeric sites are distributed in an area with a mean annual temperature of 11.1 °C (reference period 1912-2005) and a total annual precipitation around 573 mm (period 1929-2001). Mean climate at the mesic sites is cooler and wetter, with a mean annual temperature of 8.7 °C (period 1912-2008) and a total annual precipitation of around 1081 mm (period 1931-2010) (Hadad et al., 2020).

In the field, two or three increment wood cores per tree were taken at breast height (1.3 m above ground level) with an increment borer of 5 mm diameter for both female and male *A. araucana* trees. All cores were taken from single-stemmed living trees and from trunk portions without cracks, branches, reaction wood, or other growth anomalies that could hinder the tree ring identification and measurement. The sex of the trees was established by observing with binoculars the presence and type (female/male)

of the strobiles (Fig. 3AB). We did not sample trees that could not be unambiguously sexed. A set of 66 (74) female (male) trees were sampled in the xeric forests, while 47 (47) female (male) trees were sampled from the mesic sites (Table 1). The sexual ratio of these sites was close to 1:1 (Hadad et al., 2020).

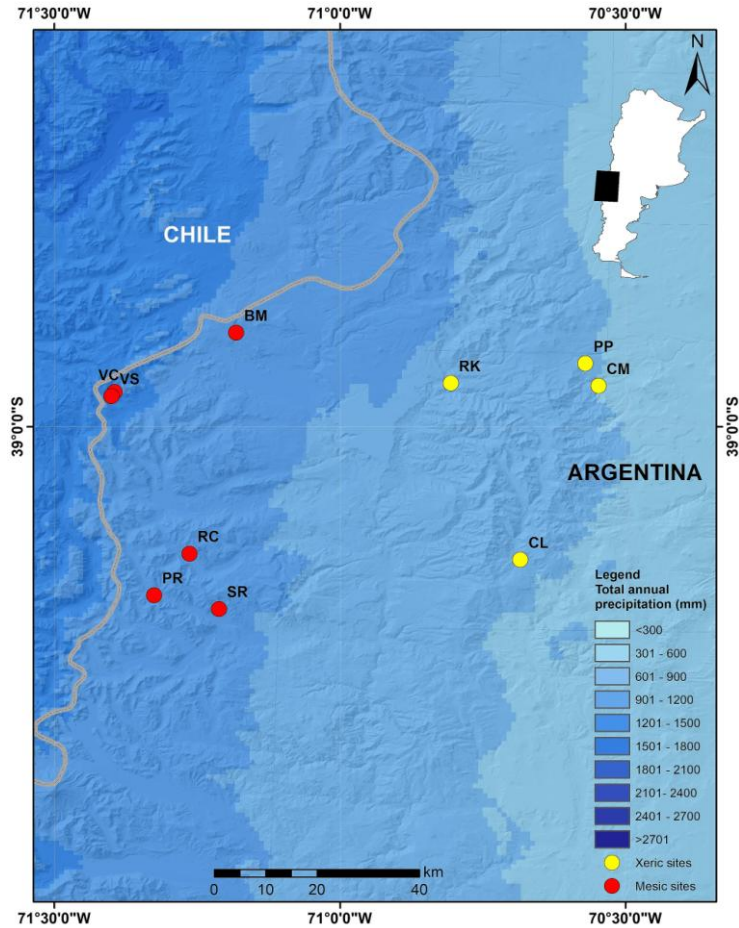


Figure 2: Xeric (yellow dots) and mesic (red dots) study sites from northwestern Patagonia, Argentina (site codes are shown in Table 1). The relative position of the study area is marked as a black rectangle on the inset outline of Argentina. The precipitation gradient from 1970 to 2000 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017) is also shown..

155 Table 1: Characteristics of the sampled sites and chronology statistics.

Forest type	Site (Code)	Latitude S	Longitude W	Altitude	Sex/N° of trees	Chronology span	Rbar	Start (EPS >0.85)
<b>Xeric</b>	Primeros Pinos (PP)	38° 52'	70° 34'	1628	Female/18 Male/16	1528-2008 1277-2008	0.309 0.260	1705 1730
	Río Kilca (RK)	38° 53' "	70° 50'	1442	Female/15 Male/7	1190-2013 1490-2013	0.337 0.270	1875 1875
	Carrerri Malal (CM)	38° 55'	70° 32'	1510	Female/12 Male/20	1592-2010 1421-2010	0.292 0.271	1875 1805
	Catan Lil (CL)	39° 14'	70° 40'	1290	Female/10 Male/25	1600-2011 1631-2011	0.307 0.380	1860 1750
	Batea Mahuida (BM)	38° 50'	71° 10'	1598	Female/10 Male/7	1553-2012 1628-2012	0.351 0.350	1830 1780
	Valle El Salvo (VS)	38° 56'	71° 25'	1294	Female/8 Male//6	1277-2012 1271-2012	0.359 0.335	1630 1705
	Verde Chico (VC)	38° 56'	71° 23'	1267	Female/11 Male/10	1761-2013 1716-2013	0.346 0.351	1895 1870
	Rucachoroi (RC)	39° 13'	71° 15'	1214	Female/7 Male/10	1648-2011 1683-2011	0.412 0.401	1725 1865
<b>Mesic</b>	Pinalada Redonda (PR)	39° 18'	71° 17'	1100	Female/5 Male/7	1720-2013 1626-2013	0.303 0.372	1855 1750
	Senda a Rucachoroi (SR)	39° 19'	71° 12'	1507	Female/6 Male/7	1305-2013 1480-2013	0.401 0.446	1885 1765

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## 158 2.2. Laboratory work and chronology development

159 In the laboratory, the core samples were mounted on wooden supports and  
160 polished with progressively finer sandpaper to highlight the tree ring boundary structure  
161 (Stokes and Smiley, 1968, Fig. 3C). Ring widths were measured with a measuring  
162 device (Velmex, USA) , with a precision of 0.001 mm. The quality control of the  
163 measurements of the ring width series was checked with the COFECHA program  
164 (Holmes, 1983).

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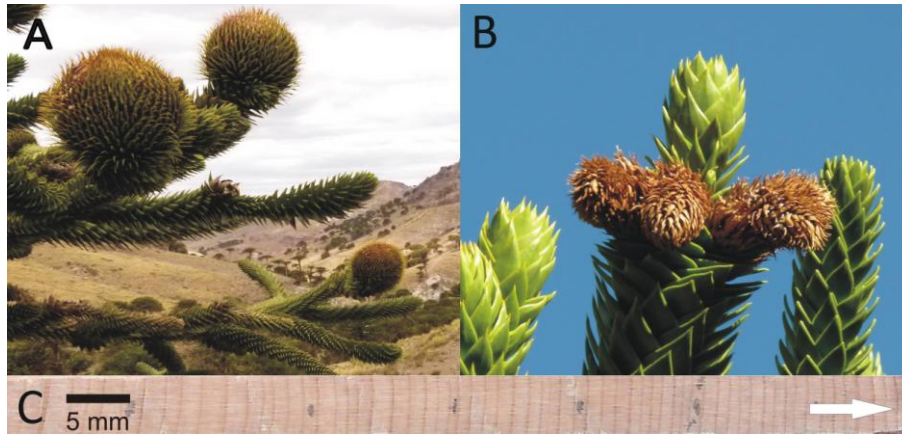


Figure 3: *Araucaria araucana* reproductive and wood features. A) a female tree with large and spherical seed cones; B) a male tree with sub-cylindrical, single, smaller pollen strobili on the tips of the canopy branches; C) a wood sample showing the annual tree ring pattern. The arrow indicates the direction towards the bark.

Raw ring width chronologies typically contain low-frequency (i.e., decadal and longer) signals associated with changes in tree age and size, canopy position and long-term changes in the environment (Fritts, 1976). In order to evaluate the relationship between annual growth and climate, this low-frequency variance was removed by detrending the raw ring width series using the R package ‘dplR’ (Bunn et al., 2019). Each series was fitted with a 50-year cubic spline with a 50% frequency cut off. Dimensionless ring width indices were created for each series by dividing the observed ring width by the fitted spline. Then, these individual ring width indices were averaged for each tree. Then, all sampled trees at each site were averaged to produce a mean site ring width index (RWI) chronology, and site-specific male and female chronologies using only male and female trees, respectively. We built regional chronologies by averaging the all-tree, male-only and female-only site chronologies. Additionally, we built site-specific and regional chronologies considering the difference between the  $RWI_{\text{male}}$  and  $RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology ( $RWI_{\text{male}} - RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronologies). We used spatial

correlograms and a Mantel test to investigate the spatial correlation of tree growth across our network of study sites before averaging the individual 10 site chronologies into regional tree-ring chronologies. Mantel tests and correlograms were run with the R package ‘ncf v1.1’ (Bjornstad, 2015). We used Spearman’s rank correlation as the measure of similarity between chronologies for the period between 1980 and the last common year shared by each pair of chronologies (2008-2013).

### **2.3. Sex-specific growth patterns**

Sex-specific growth variability was assessed by comparing male and female chronologies at the individual, site, and regional level. At the individual-level a Principle Component Gradient Analysis (PCGA) (Buras et al., 2016) was used to characterize within-site growth variability, and to test whether the variability was related to tree sex. PCGA is based on principal component analysis and uses the polar-transformation of the loadings of the first and second principal components to identify population gradients or subpopulations (Buras et al., 2016). Sex-specific growth differences were tested using a Wilcoxon rank test of the angles of the polar coordinates of male and female trees from each site (Gut et al., 2019). Following the recommendation of Buras et al. (2018), tree-ring chronologies used for PCGA were separately detrended using autoregressive models. Detrending was performed using the R package ‘dplR’, with model selection to minimize Akaike’s Information Criterion (the default option in the detrending function) (Bunn et al., 2018). PCGA analysis was conducted for a common overlap period for the trees sampled at each site. A small number of trees were excluded from PCGA at some sites as they were missing some outer tree rings.

### **2.4. Mast event identification**

Mast events occur synchronously in *A. araucana* forests across the study region, and large regional mast events occurred in 1995, 2000, 2007 and 2013 according to Sanguinetti and Kitzberger (2008) and Sanguinetti (2014). As seed fall occurs in March or April, and the tree ring formation starts in October or November of the previous calendar year (Fig. 1), we re-dated the reported mast events to correspond to the calendar year when the rings started forming (e.g. a mast event with seed fall recorded April 1995 and dated to 1995 was re-dated to 1994 to correspond to the equivalent tree ring, which started ring formation in October in 1994, and is consequently dated to 1994).

## **2.5. Relationship between male and female tree-ring width and mast events**

Superposed Epoch Analysis (SEA) (Grissino-Mayer, 1995) was used to assess the response of tree growth to mast events. SEA compares the mean growth before, during and after an event with the mean growth of non-event years (Swetnam, 1993). The significance of growth responses was estimated using a bootstrapping procedure with 1,000 simulations (Bunn, 2008). Here, we used SEA to test growth responses of male and female trees to known regional mast events by using the RWI chronologies, testing the growth responses during the mast event and in a three-year window either side of the event. We reported results for the regional RWI chronologies, and we repeated the tests for sex-specific site chronologies (Appendix A). Additionally, we applied SEA to a  $RWI_{\text{male}} - RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology.

## **2.6. Relationship between sex-specific tree growth and regional climate patterns**

To evaluate the spatial relationship between tree growth (female and male) and broad-scale climate patterns, we compared regional RWI chronologies with Pacific sea surface temperature (SST), and land surface temperatures. We used gridded monthly SST and land surface data at a spatial resolution of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  cells for the period 1948-

2013 originated from the NCEP re-analysis global dataset (Kalnay et al., 1996). The spatial correlation fields were performed using tools provided on the website of National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA/ESRL Physical Sciences Laboratory, Boulder Colorado, <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/>). Composite maps were created to evaluate the spatial features of spring-summer (Oct-Mar) SST anomalies in relation with tree growth for two years before the growing season (-2), for the previous growing season (-1) and for the current period of growth (0).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Growth synchrony

Growth synchrony between sites was high (mean between-site  $rh0 = 0.49$  male-only chronologies,  $rh0 = 0.38$ ; female-only chronologies,  $rh0 = 0.49$ ), and did not decline significantly with geographical distance across the study region, including for male- and female-only site chronologies (Mantel correlation =  $-0.13$ ,  $p = 0.188$ ; male-only chronologies =  $0.08$ ,  $p = 0.339$ ; female-only chronologies =  $-0.20$ ,  $p = 0.100$ . Fig. 4). These analyses indicated that it was appropriate to combine the 10 sites into a regional RWI chronology.

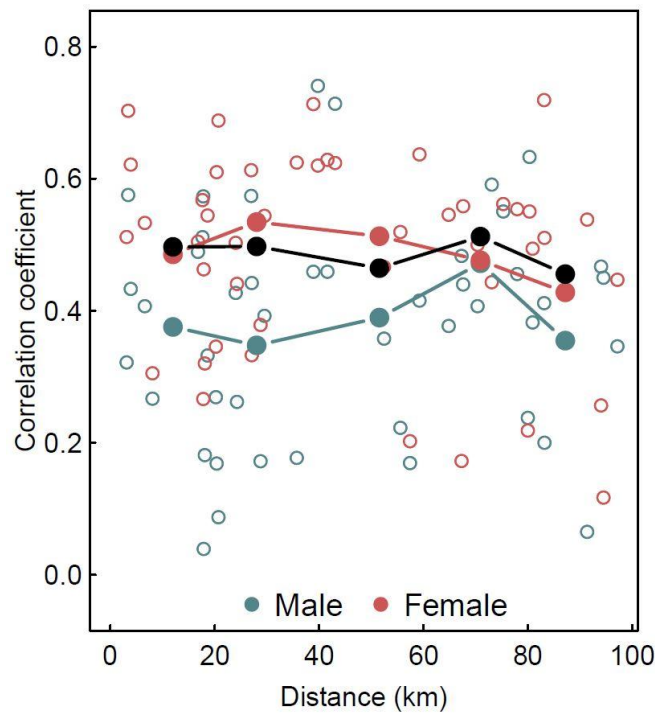


Figure 4: Spatial variation in the growth synchrony for the sex-specific RWI chronologies from each site (1987-2013). Each unfilled point shows a pairwise correlation between male (blue) and female (red) sites, and the filled points show the Mantel correlogram for male and female chronologies, and for the full site chronologies including all male and female trees (black).

### 3.2 Sex-specific growth patterns

PCGA demonstrated that individual trees within sites shared a strong common signal (Fig. 5). However, PCGA revealed significant sex-specific high-frequency growth variability in four sites (PP, RK, RC and PR; Fig. 5), and close-to-significant differences at further three sites. Sites with significant differences between male and female high frequency growth variability tended to have lower mean tree age, less variable growth (coefficient of variation, CV), lower within-site synchrony ( $\bar{r}$ ) and higher overall growth (mean ring width), and significant differences between male and female growth were found in xeric and mesic sites. However, with only ten sample sites

it was not possible to robustly test these associations. It was notable however, that the four sites with the strongest sex-specific high frequency growth variability (Fig. 5), also showed the strongest sex-specific growth responses to regional mast events (see Appendix A). Within each site, growth pattern between male and female trees generally showed high synchrony (mean within-site correlation of paired male and female chronologies,  $\rho = 0.51$ ; correlation of the female and male regional chronologies,  $\rho = 0.62$ ,  $p = 0.001$ , 1987-2013, Fig. 6).

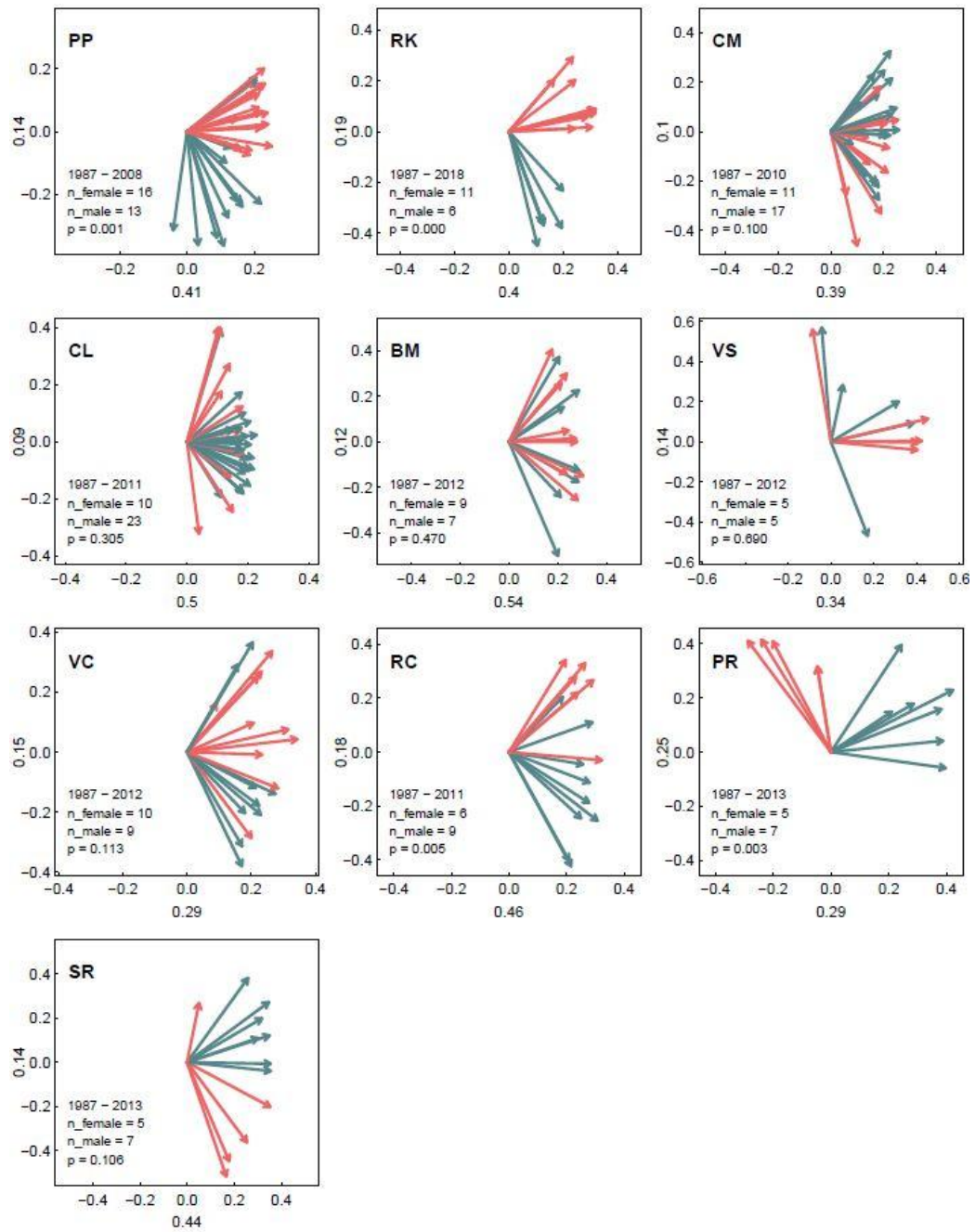


Figure 5: Sex-specific differences in growth variability according to PCGA (PC1 and PC2). Red arrows indicate female individuals and blue arrows indicate male individuals. For each site, PCGA was conducted on individuals for the post-1987 period of the chronology. Individuals that did not reach the end of the chronology were excluded, as PCGA requires all individuals to have complete data over the entire testing period.  $p$ -values are based on Wilcoxon rank tests.

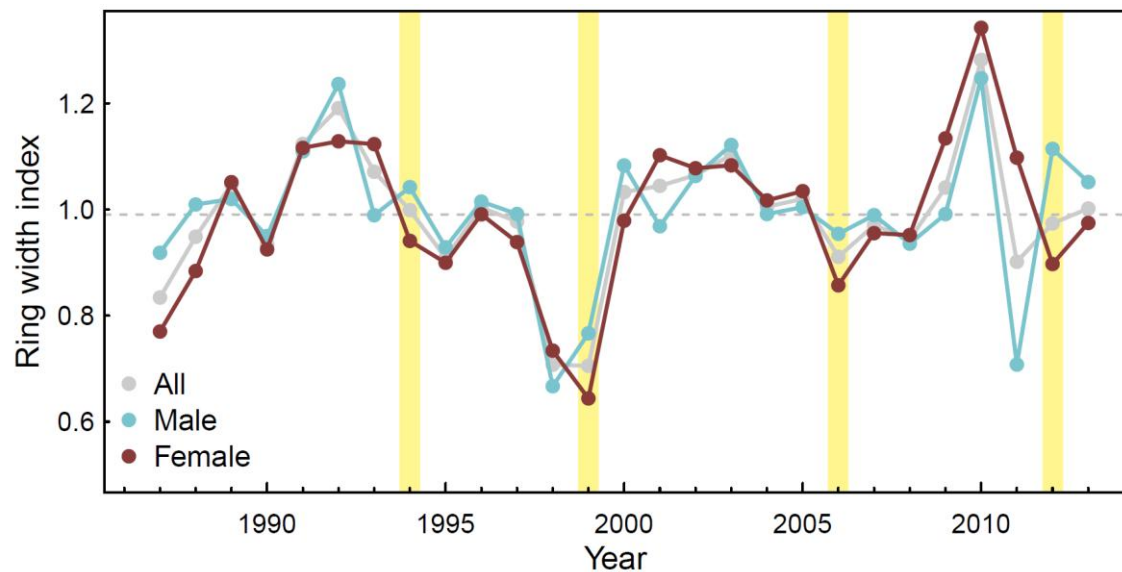


Figure 6: Ring width index of female, male and regional chronologies for the period 1987-2013. Shading indicates regional mast events.

### 3.3 Sex-specific growth-mast event relationships

The narrowest tree ring of the full regional chronology (including all male and female trees) was associated with the mast events in 1999, but overall, growth of the combined male and female chronology was not significantly lower in mast years than non-mast events ( $t = -1.547$ ,  $p = 0.200$ ). Indeed, in the mast events of 1994 and 2012, growth was close to the long-term average.

In female trees, a mast event was associated with significantly lower growth (-15.42% compared to the 1987-2013 mean, significance estimated by bootstrapped resampling, Fig. 7B). This growth reduction was restricted to a single year, with close-to-normal growth in the years before and after seedfall. In males, a similar growth response was observed (-15.38%), but shifted by one year, with the significant growth anomaly associated with the year of pollination immediately prior to a mast event (Fig. 7B). Growth of male trees returned to close-to-normal levels the following year (the year of seedfall, associated with low growth in females). In both males and females,



growth was higher one and two years prior to a mast event, respectively, coinciding with the years immediately prior to pollination and flowering. The sex-specific growth responses in association with mast events resulted in a particularly strong and distinct signal in a  $RWI_{\text{male}}-RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology (Fig. 7C). Mast events were associated with a highly distinctive sequence of a significantly negative anomaly followed by a significantly positive anomaly in the  $RWI_{\text{male}}-RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology (Fig. 7C).

As our dataset included only four mast events and could be sensitive to the effect of individual cases of a randomly associated mast event and low growth, we re-ran all analysis excluding one mast event each time, and found consistent results. Figure 7A also supports the robustness of our results, demonstrating variation in the strength of the male-female differences between mast events, but also demonstrating that all four observed mast events (seedfall) are associated with reduced female growth relative to males, and vice-versa for the associated year of pollination.

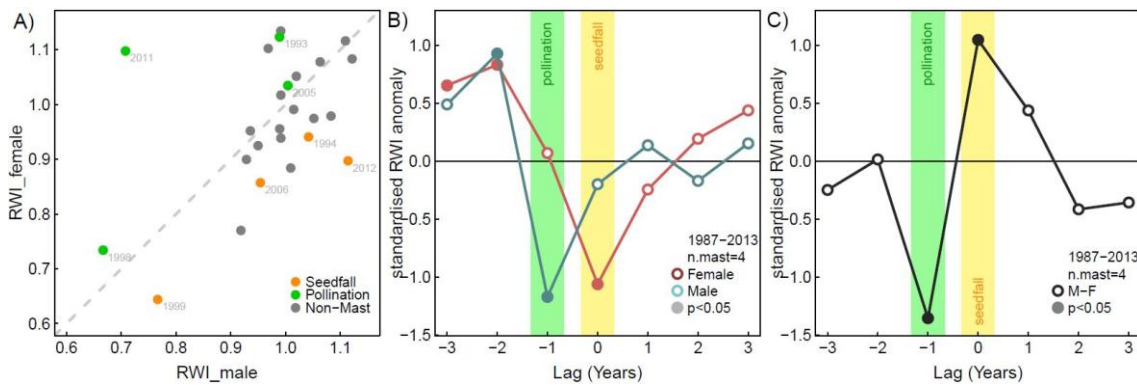


Figure 7: Regional sex-specific growth patterns associated with masting (for each site see Appendix A). A) Relationship between male and female RWI (1987-2013) according to reproductive state (pollination and seedfall years, corresponding to the four large regional masting events). B) Superimposed epoch analysis showing the response of male (blue) and female (red) RWI to mast events during the period 1987-2013. Lag = 0 is the year of seedfall, and lag = -1 is the year of pollination. Filled circles indicate

significant values at  $p < 0.05$ . C) Superimposed epoch analysis (SEA) showing the response of the  $RWI_{\text{male}} - RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology to mast events during the period 1987-2013. Lag = 0 is the year of seedfall, and lag = -1 is the year of pollination. Filled circles indicate significant values at  $p < 0.05$ . (SEAs of each site are shown in Appendix A).

### 3.4 Large-scale climate controls on growth

Both female and male chronologies showed positive and significant spatial correlations with the growing season tropical SSTs ( $p < 0.05$ ) over two years before (-2) the tree growth. Correlations were higher for female trees (Fig. 8A) than for male trees (Fig. 8B). Male and female RWI were weakly correlated with SST in the previous growing season (-1). However, female chronology showed a slightly positive, but not significant correlation with SST for the El Niño 3.4 region. In contrast, growth was generally negatively and significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) correlated with tropical and subtropical SSTs in the year of growth for female trees, with the highest correlations towards sectors of the sub-equatorial Pacific and near the mid latitude coast of the South American continent in the current period (Fig. 8 E-F). The correlation fields for male and female chronologies showed broadly similar patterns, but correlations with SST were stronger for the female chronology. Positive correlations were evident towards higher latitudes of the Pacific, with an apparent spatial coherence of this pattern for both female and male trees.

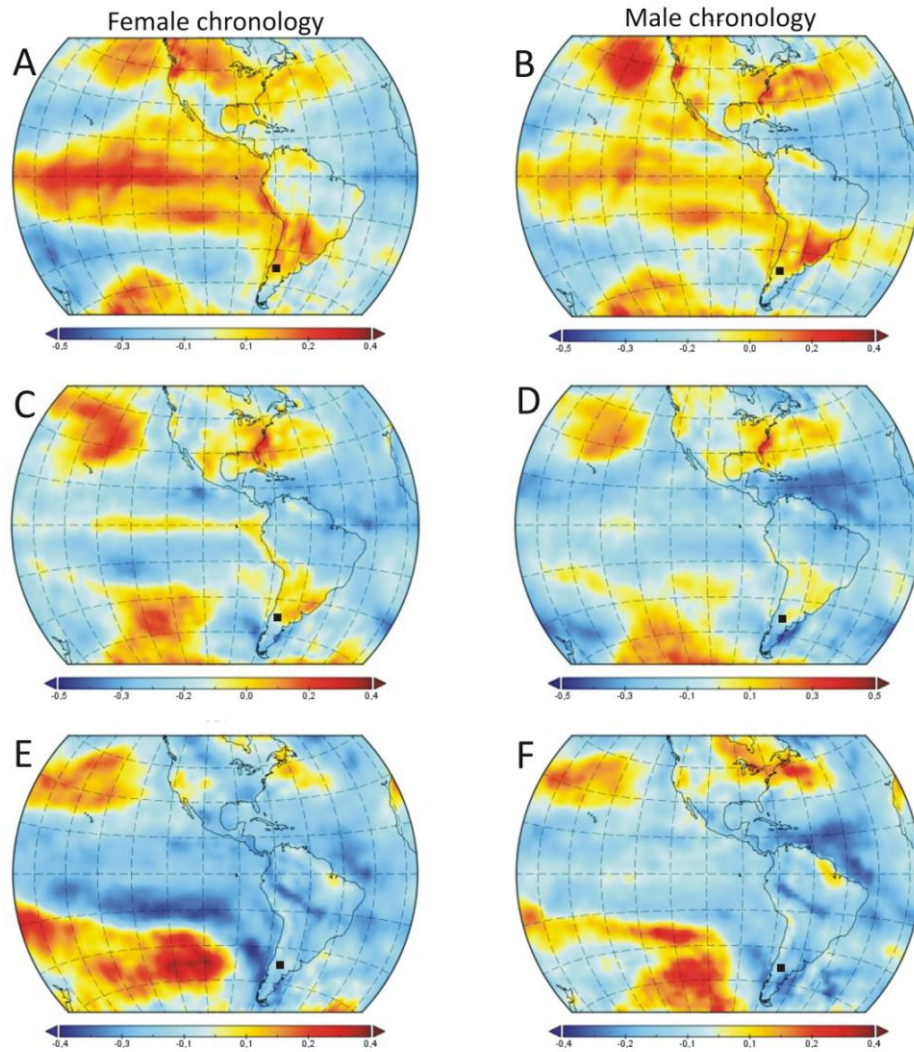


Figure 8: Spatial correlation coefficient fields (Pearson's correlation) between female (left panel) and male (right panel) regional RWI chronologies and Pacific Sea Surface Temperature (SST) and land surface temperature. A-B) correlations with the two previous growing season (Oct-Mar) SSTs, C-D) correlations with the previous growing season (Oct-Mar) SSTs, and E-F) correlations with the current growing season SST. Correlations were calculated for the period 1948-2013. Black squares indicate the study region. Significance intervals for  $p < 0.05$  are  $< -0.242$  and  $> 0.242$ , respectively. Maps were created using the spatial correlation tools provided by the NOAA/ESRL Physical Sciences Laboratory, Boulder Colorado from its website at <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/>.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Sex-specific growth patterns and growth-mast event relationships

Beyond the broad spatial similarity observed between different sex chronologies, our study identified distinct sex-specific growth patterns at individual, site and regional level. This is consistent with previous studies performed with *A. araucana* (Hadad and Roig, 2016; Rozas et al., 2019), and other dioecious tree species (*Juniperus thurifera* L.; Rozas et al., 2009). We showed, for the first time, that these sex-specific growth patterns were linked to differences in the growth response of male and female trees in relation to mast events. In association with a mast event, growth was significantly reduced in female trees (which bear the seed cone), while growth was significantly reduced in male trees in the year prior to a mast event, in association with high male investment in pollen cones (the reproductive cycle of *A. araucana* occurs over two years). We interpreted these growth reductions as representing resource switching or a trade-off between growth and reproduction (Monks and Kelly, 2006; Müller-Haubold et al., 2013). However, we noted that while growth was always reduced during mast events compared to the previous years of growth, albeit offset by one year in males, (Fig. 6 and Fig. 7B), not all narrow tree rings were associated with mast events, and growth reductions associated with mast events varied substantially in magnitude (Fig. 6). This may have resulted from interactions between mast events and growing conditions during the ring formation (Hacket-Pain et al., 2017, 2019), or the status of internal reserves which may buffer any trade-off between growth and reproduction (Mund et al., 2020). In our regional RWI chronology, the absolute growth response to mast event was variable between the four mast events, however the response of male and female trees relative to each other was notably consistent. In the pollination year prior to a mast event, the growth of males was always lower than females, even when

the absolute growth rate was close to normal (e.g., the mast event in 1994). In the following mast year, the relative growth performance of males and females was always reversed, such that female growth was lower than males, again even when absolute growth was close to normal. This “natural experiment” in a dioecious species where the main costs of reproduction occur in different years for males and females, as in *A. araucana*, provides a powerful tool to disentangle the effects of mast events and coincident climate variability (Drobyshev et al., 2014). In our study this is shown by the distinct response of a  $RWI_{\text{male}}-RWI_{\text{female}}$  chronology (Fig. 7C).

On the other hand, we noted that while we found strong results in regional chronologies, some sites showed stronger sex-specific growth patterns than others (Fig. 4). Expansion of our tree-ring network and analysis of intra-annual growth features (e.g. wood density, early/latewood proportions) of male and female trees may help to explain why some sites did not show the strong sex-specific growth and mast responses that were clear in the regional tree-ring chronology (Fig. 5, Appendix A). These mast event-insensitive chronologies tended to be from sites with older trees, and presented lower and more synchronised growth with higher interannual variability, perhaps indicating greater effects of growth limiting factors.

#### **4.2. Sex-specific growth responses to climate**

Our results showed broadly similar responses of male and female chronologies to variation in Pacific SSTs during the growing season months. We found that growth of males and females was positively correlated with SSTs two years prior to growth, with slightly stronger correlations for female trees. This lag in the effect of the climate on tree growth is commonly observed in many species (Fritts, 1976). The climate conditions in northern Patagonia are strongly coupled with the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Garreaud et al., 2009). The occurrence of warm (El Niño) events in

the tropical Pacific is associated with a decrease (increase) temperature (precipitation) during austral spring months (September to November) and an increase (decrease) temperature (precipitation) during the summer months (December to February) in north Patagonia (Montecinos and Aceituno, 2003; Garreaud et al., 2009). Generally opposite conditions are observed during La Niña events (Garreaud et al., 2009). Therefore, the positive correlation observed between tree growth and SSTs could indicate a positive relationship between *A. araucana* growth and spring precipitation two years prior to the current growth period, indicating a possible interaction of growth with El Niño conditions in the tropical Pacific. Furthermore, we found weak correlations between growth and SST in the previous year, consistent with Mundo et al. (2012) who also reported a weak negative correlation between *A. araucana* tree regional growth and sea surface temperature in the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) 3.4 region in the previous growing season, although they did not test this for males and females separately. Our results showed that female trees had a slightly positive, but not significant correlation with equatorial SST in the previous year, a response not detected in the male chronology. In contrast, cold SSTs, that are linked to La Niña events, during the current growing season were associated with lower growth in both male and female trees, although the correlation was stronger for females (Fig. 8). This negative correlation observed between *A. araucana* growth and tropical SSTs could be associated with high temperatures during spring and lower precipitations during summer months for the current period. Thus, growth responses to broad-scale climate controls appeared to be sex-specific, as was also reported by Rozas et al. (2019) for *A. araucana* forests growing on the windward side of the Andes. Other studies also reported differences in growth-climate relationships in dioecious species (*J. thurifera*; Rozas et al., 2009). In this sense, male trees are frequently reported to have higher drought tolerance than

female ones (Montesinos et al., 2012, Rozas et al., 2009). This is consistent with our results where females were more strongly negatively correlated with SSTs during the period of ring formation. This may result from higher water use efficiency in males (Montesinos et al., 2012). Although not tested in our current analyses, we propose that differences in growth sensitivity to climate between male and female trees may also partly result from the interplay of climate, mast events and sex-specific costs of reproduction, either where climate acts as a cue for mast years (Hacket-Pain et al., 2018), or where growing season climate interacts with coincident reproductive investment to influence tree growth (Hacket-Pain et al., 2017). Indeed, gender differences in growth are often increased under stressful conditions (Verdu et al., 2004).

#### **4.3 Implications for mast events and climate reconstructions**

Long observation records of mast events rarely exceed several decades in length, but such datasets provide the key to identifying long-term changes in mast events and the drivers of such changes (Pearse et al., 2017; Ascoli et al., 2019). Several attempts have been made to extend observational mast events records using tree-rings (Speer, 2001; Drobyshev et al., 2014), but these efforts have been hampered by weak mast event signals in chronologies (Speer, 2001; Hacket-Pain et al., 2019, Koenig et al., 2020), or difficulties in distinguishing between the signature of mast events and climate (Drobyshev et al., 2014). Our results indicate that sex-specific responses to mast events in dioecious *A. araucana* tree species offer a potential methodology for tree-ring-based mast reconstructions, which could be extended over multiple centuries. Particularly, the distinct difference of relative growth between male and female trees in the year of pollination and seed fall may provide a method to distinguish mast years from other non-mast growth decreases (Drobyshev et al., 2014). Although our results are regionally consistent, we note that important uncertainties remain to be solved, including

understanding the observed between-site growth sensitivity to mast events, and the potential effect of changes in tree age and/or size on the masting signal (Hadad et al., 2015; Hadad and Roig, 2016; Rozas et al., 2019; Bogdziewicz et al., 2020). This method would only be applicable to dioecious species, but important masting species could be also studied including species of the genus *Juniperus* and the masting dioecious podocarps of New Zealand such as *Dacrydium cupressinum* (Norton and Kelly, 1988).

## 5. Conclusions

Male and female *A. araucana* tree-ring chronologies share a strong common signal and are strongly regionally correlated. Nevertheless, we have demonstrated that contrasting growth responses of male and female trees to regional mast years are responsible for distinct sex-specific growth variability in this dioecious species. Growth of male and female trees is reduced in response to mast events, but in different years. Complementary studies are now required to establish whether sex-specific climate-growth relationships in this species result from an interplay with mast events, requiring the identification of the climatic cues that act to synchronise *Araucaria* mast events at a regional scale. Furthermore, our results provide a framework for future work to reconstruct *A. araucana* mast events over multiple decades or centuries. This would improve understanding of the regeneration dynamics of this endangered species. Furthermore, we argue that the ability to isolate mast events signals in tree-ring chronologies can provide the basis for improving dendroclimatic calibration in *A. araucana* trees.

## Author contribution statement

Martín A. Hadad: Conceptualization, Methodology design, Provision of data, Investigation, Data analysis, Writing - original draft, review & editing. Andrew Hacket-



Pain: Conceptualization, Methodology design, Investigation, Data analysis, Writing - original draft, review & editing. Fidel A. Roig: Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - original draft, review & editing. Julieta G. Arco Molina: Provision of data, Writing - review & editing.

#### **Disclosure statement**

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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